R E P O R T R E S U M E S

ED 020 701 FL 000 801

THE TEACHER OF MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES.

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PUB DATE 62

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.25 HC-$1.20 28P.

DESCRIPTORS- *LANGUAGE TEACHERS, *TEACHER IMPROVEMENT, *TEACHER EDUCATION, *TEACHER QUALIFICATIONS, *SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS, TEACHER EXPERIENCE, AUDIOLINGUAL SKILLS, SKILL DEVELOPMENT, TEACHER PROGRAMS, PROGRAM IMPROVEMENT, TEACHER WORKSHOPS, SEQUENTIAL PROGRAMS, JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, HIGH SCHOOLS, LANGUAGE SKILLS,

BEGINNING WITH AN AUDIOLINGUAL APPROACH, THE FOUR BASIC SKILLS OF HEARING, SPEAKING, READING, AND WRITING MAY BE DEVELOPED IN LANGUAGE STUDENTS OVER A 6-YEAR SEQUENCE OF STUDY FROM GRADES 7 THROUGH 12. THE DEMAND FOR COMPETENT TEACHERS WHO CAN SUCCESSFULLY IMPLEMENT THIS COURSE OF STUDY HIGHLIGHTS THE NEED FOR IMPROVED TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAMS. FOR TEACHERS LACKING THE BACKGROUND IN NEW TECHNIQUES, MORE REMEDIAL INSTITUTES SUCH AS THOSE BEGUN BY THE NATIONAL DEFENSE EDUCATION ACT OF 1958 ARE NEEDED TO DEMONSTRATE MODERN PRACTICES TO TEACHERS. FOR PROSPECTIVE LANGUAGE TEACHERS, THERE SHOULD BE A REQUIREMENT BETWEEN THEIR COLLEGE FRESHMAN YEAR AND THE FIRST YEAR OF GRADUATE SCHOOL TO QUALIFY AS AT LEAST "GOOD" IN ALL SEVEN CATEGORIES OF THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION TEACHER-QUALIFICATION TESTS. LINGUISTIC, ANTHROPOLOGICAL, SOCIOLOGICAL, AND PSYCHOLOGICAL SPECIALISTS SHOULD COLLABORATE FOR A COMPLETE IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMS THAT WILL PRODUCE COMPETENT TEACHERS ABLE TO MEET THE PRESENT-DAY DEMANDS. THIS DOCUMENT IS A REPRINT FROM "THE EDUCATION OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHER," PUBLISHED BY WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY PRESS, MIDDLETOWN, CONNECTICUT. (SS)

ED020701

THEODORE ANDERSSON:

The Teacher of Modern Foreign Languages

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Wesleyan University Press, MIDDLETOWN, CONNECTICUT

CHAPTER VIII

THEODORE ANDERSSON:

The Teacher of Modern Foreign Languages

Introduction: Importance of Early Experience, Schooling, and Training

The education of the future teacher of modern foreign languages often begins with the first utterances he hears and learns to imitate. This may be his native language, which he may someday teach as a foreign language, or it may be a second language learned from birth in a bicultural situation. Lucky are those children for whom this first stage of language learning begins so early and continues for several years, long enough to become a permanent acquisition. A child in such a situation not only learns a language without special effort, he also acquires the mental set, habits of behavior, and sense of values of those around him. This process of learning a language in the context of its culture is a part of what is known as enculturation.

It is estimated that in addition to the million and a half Americans living abroad and in direct contact with other cultures we have in the United States some twenty million speakers of languages other than English. These provide a considerable reservoir of potential language teachers. In New York City one American citizen in ten is a native speaker of Spanish of Puerto Rican background. One Texan out of six has a Spanish name and can usually speak Spanish. Louisiana alone has some 400,000 speakers of French. Speakers of French

in New England and in Louisiana, of Spanish in the New York area and in the Southwest, of German in the Midwest, of Italian in many large cities, of Chinese and Japanese on the West Coast and in Hawaii, and of Russian, Polish, and the Scandinavian languages in scattered places represent such vast linguistic and cultural resources that we should be able to find among them enough prospective language teachers to supply the entire country.

A second opportunity to begin the education of the future language teacher occurs when the child who knows only his native language goes to school. His first teacher of a foreign language is in a strategic position to plant in him the seed of a special interest in languages; and, with his first thought that he may one day like to teach, the pupil's observation of his teachers becomes more conscious and more critical. As teachers we too often fail to keep the possibility of a career in teaching attractively before our students. And in our teacher-training programs we often overlook the usefulness of these twelve to sixteen years of daily observation of teachers and school administrators.

The third aspect of the education of prospective teachers, the period of training, is our main concern in this chapter. This training may occur in a liberal arts college, in a school of education, in a teachers' college—now coming to be called a state college—or in a graduate school. We shall not describe existing programs, for they are changing and many of them are unsatisfactory. Too many have been organized to satisfy state certification requirements, which are in turn inadequate. Instead, we shall examine the desirable qualifications of a language teacher and use these as a basis for discussing an adequate teacher-training program. In order to suggest as concretely as possible what a teacher should be able to do, we shall start by describing two visits to language classes, the first near the beginning and the second toward the end of the secondary-school course. We shall then sketch briefly the six-year sequence of language study which these two classes presuppose. And finally we shall enumerate the elements of a teacher-training program designed to produce teachers competent to teach languages in the way that the times require.

A Visit to a Seventh-Grade Class in Russian

Let us first visit a seventh-grade class in a large city high school. Here a young woman is teaching a first-year class in Russian. The teacher's parents were both born in Russia, came to this country shortly after the Bolshevik Revolution, met, married, and raised their children here. By speaking Russian in the home, they enabled their children to learn this language as a mother tongue. At the same time the children learned English from their playmates and later in school. Our teacher inherited from her parents a deep-seated respect for the teaching profession and chose to become a teacher—of English. With the revival of foreign-language teaching after the launching of Sputnik and the passage of the National Defense Education Act of 1958 (NDEA), school administrators began looking for qualified teachers of Russian. At this time our teacher, who was already licensed, decided to offer to teach her mother tongue.

Knowing little of modern theory and practice, she enrolled in an NDEA summer language institute. Here her experience was that of many a secondary-school teacher. At first she resisted all the talk about linguistic science, the primacy of speech over writing, and language as behavior. These concepts did not correspond to her own language-learning experience in school nor to that of her parents. She resolved to keep an open mind, however, and gradually she began to understand the new ideas and to find them acceptable. What finally won her over was the demonstration classes, conducted in the early stages entirely without writing and without grammar explanation. The children watched and listened to a native-speaking teacher, imitated his every utterance and gesture, gradually memorized by ear whole dialogues, created rearrangements of these, and acted them out with gusto. Fascinated by the speed with which the children learned, by their accurate pronunciation, and especially by their great satisfaction with this kind of learning, she decided that this was the way she was going to teach Russian.

And this is the way she is teaching today, some two months after the first class in early September. The class contains thirty pupils, an equal number of boys and girls. Fortunately modern electronic equipment and choral techniques have mitigated somewhat the

difficulties of large classes. Today, for example, we find that fifteen of the pupils are working with such equipment at the rear of the room while the teacher is working directly with the others.

By plugging in a set of earphones and turning a button we may monitor any one of the fifteen pupils at the electronic stations. At the moment they are doing pattern practice. They listen to a model sentence in Russian spoken at normal speed by a native speaker. This sentence is taken from a dialogue concerning a situation in school. The teacher is conscious of the fact that the situation is more characteristic of an American school than of a Russian school, so she has questioned her parents about their school experience in Russia, and in fact she has persuaded them to record a dialogue on tape parallel to the one now being practiced but culturally more nearly authentic though perhaps a little out of date. This dialogue she will use on Friday, when she likes to vary the program. She will also make it available in the school library, where there are three magnetic tape channels and four tables with a total of twenty-four listening posts.

Let us return to our fifteen pupils wearing earphones and absorbed in what they are doing. This is their third contact with this dialogue, which they have by now memorized. Yesterday the teacher presented this material and showed the class how to practice. Last night the pupils learned the dialogue by listening to a disc taken home from school. On the disc two native speakers do the whole dialogue at natural speed while the pupil thinks of the meaning, reminding himself, if necessary, by looking at an English translation. Each pupil listens to the dialogue as many times as may be needed to understand but about three times on the average. Then the dialogue is broken into short but natural utterances, with pauses for repetition by the pupil, followed by a repetition by the speaker. This procedure is also followed several times, according to the pupil's need. And finally the pupil is assisted in memorizing the dialogue in the following way: The voice on the disc says the first sentence, then repeats, omitting the last word or two. The pupil accompanies the voice aloud and fills in the missing words from memory. The voice repeats the sentence, omitting a longer segment at the end, and again the pupil fills in the missing words. When only the first

words in the sentence are left, a voice says, "Now say the whole sentence." The pupil tries. The voice repeats the sentence. The pupil imitates. The voice repeats again and the pupil imitates. And a third time the voice repeats and the pupil imitates. At this point the pupil stops the turntable and practices the sentence as many times as may be necessary for him to feel confident that he knows it. This same process is then repeated with each successive sentence in the dialogue.

At their listening posts the pupils are now busy practicing the various patterns involved. The voice on the tape gives a model in the foreign language: "Let's go to the library." Pupil: "Let's go to the library." Voice: "Gym." Pupil: "Let's go to the gym." Voice: "Post office." Pupil: "Let's go to the post office." Since the structure is kept constant and the vocabulary varied only within the limits of what has already been learned, the pupils are encouraged to make their utterances not only accurate in pronunciation, speed, intonation, and juncture (the way words are connected), but also to make them habitual, or automatic. Gradually the sounds, rhythm, intonation, and structure will become more familiar and will lose their strangeness.

By listening to another form of replacement or substitution exercise we realize that not all is mere rote repetition, though much rote learning is essential to mastering a language. The voice on the tape says, with convincing naturalness, "There are two girls sitting at the table."

Pupil: "There are two girls sitting at the table."
Voice: "Desk."
Pupil: "There are two girls sitting at the desk."
Voice: "Standing."
Pupil: "There are two girls standing at the desk."
Voice: "Boys."
Pupil: "There are two boys standing at the desk."
Voice: "Three."
Pupil: "There are three boys standing at the desk."
Voice: "Were."
Pupil: "There were three boys standing at the desk."

Thus, while remaining conscious of the basic pattern, the pupil is led

to vary the elements in it. Each repetition at natural speed and with faithful imitation serves to fix more firmly the fundamental structure of the language. The pupil thus becomes conscious of "correct" or appropriate usage, but there is no explanation of grammar, no talking *about* language. Gradually the pupils realize that at this stage the question "Why?" makes no sense, that the answer is always the same: "Because this is the way speakers of Russian say it."

This exercise has taken fifteen minutes. In the meantime, with the other half of the class, the teacher has been reviewing day before yesterday's lesson by means of pattern practices and question-and-answer drill. This is the fourth time over this unit. The response to pattern practice takes place first with everyone responding, then with boys responding, then girls, then with one row or file or group responding, then another. Instead of leaving fourteen pupils inactive while asking a question of one pupil, the teacher uses the chain system. She has one pupil ask another, who answers and in turn asks the next question of the third, and so forth. This proceeds simultaneously in each row or file, while the teacher listens, encourages, or corrects, as needed. After this the class is divided into pairs, the teacher taking on the fifteenth child, each pair going through the entire routine. Finally, the teacher calls on several pupils in turn to give a brief oral composition in the form of an original rearrangement of the structures and vocabulary that have been learned. The pupils get their greatest satisfaction from this kind of manipulation, which enables them to show that they can already "use" the language. The teacher takes note of mistakes, corrects them inconspicuously, and plans supplementary drills for use in class on the points involved. At the end of fifteen minutes the two groups change places. In this way two thirds of the class time is taken up.

The teacher uses the last fifteen minutes to introduce to the whole class the new unit, which the pupils will study at home from a disc for at least half an hour in the way that has already been described. In class the teacher explains briefly in English the situation on which the new dialogue is based, models the dialogue, identifies the new structures, demonstrates the pattern practice, and begins the drill. She wastes no time "explaining" meaning or structure. Since the pupils must at all times know the meaning, they are provided

with an English version containing a completely natural translation and as needed a literal explanation of an occasional word or phrase. The bell rings, the teacher goes to the door, says good-by in Russian to each pupil, and each one answers in Russian. As they scatter, we overhear snatches of dialogue in Russian, proudly spoken.

The reader will recognize the contrast between the procedure we have described and his own language-learning experience. In the class we have just witnessed the teacher talks less than 50 per cent of the time and each pupil is engaged in listening and speaking more than half of the time. In addition, every time he listens he must make a prompt response, so that hearing and speaking are intimately connected. This routine is strictly adhered to Monday through Thursday, the teacher informs us. Fridays are used for a weekly test and for varied activities of a less formal nature. In testing listening comprehension the teacher uses only the structures and vocabulary that have been studied, though the words may be recombined in a new order. Different voices are used, but a normal conversational speed is maintained. Pupil response is tested by recording the pupil's oral reproduction of a few expressions, recording his response to various stimuli, such as questions, commands, incomplete sentences, and pictures, and recording an original one-minute oral composition given without notes. The test takes five minutes. As the first fifteen pupils record their tests on tape, the other fifteen have a brief recess outside the room. After five minutes they change places and the whole test is over in less than fifteen minutes. The teacher may either monitor the performance of the pupils or review their tape later.

The teacher uses the remaining time to broaden the interest of the pupils by extending their vicarious experience. For the purpose of giving her pupils some understanding of Russian ways of life, she uses films, filmstrips, recordings, books, magazines, newspapers, and pictures. The teacher makes her collection available to the pupils in the classroom or in the school library. In this early stage these materials are mostly in English or are pictorial. The pupils enjoy especially occasional visits of a Russian student from a nearby university or of a Russian *émigré* in the community, who reminisces about his youth in Russia. In addition, the teacher records the talks made by visitors, special interviews with Russian speakers, or radio

programs in Russian. The teacher's resourcefulness and enthusiasm have of course a good deal to do with her pupils' interest. Already one of her boys has said that he would like one day to teach Russian.

A Visit to an Eleventh-Twelfth Grade Class in French

The class we have just described is imaginary; it is a composite of elements observed or suggested in various schools. The class we are about to describe is authentic except in detail and has been observed by the writer.

This visit is to an independent boys' school, where a class in French literature is taking place in early May. It is a class called French V, which presupposes the *equivalent* of four years of French study before the beginning of this course. The head of the department has explained to us that not one of the twelve boys in the class has had a full four years of school French previously. Six of the boys started French in this school but by taking the "fast" sections on the first three levels were able to move into French V in their senior year. The other six are juniors who have had the advantage of living and studying in France or Switzerland for at least a year. Two of these were assigned to French III Special when they entered as sophomores and one to French IV. One will as a senior take advantage of an opportunity extended to outstanding students to take French VI as an individual reading course, choosing the works of Balzac as his project. He will confer with his teacher once a week for half an hour. In the course of the year he will read some twenty of Balzac's novels, will become familiar with the story of Balzac's life, and will gain some understanding of Balzac's world. He will become a skillful and perceptive reader and will learn to write quite effectively by doing each week a book report, which will be carefully criticized and corrected by his teacher. Near the end of his senior year he will take the Advanced Placement Test in French administered by the College Entrance Examination Board, will receive the top grade, and in the university of his choice will receive six credits for a literature course and be given permission to take junior or senior courses in stylistics, civilization, or literature.

But we are anticipating. Let us return to our French V class. The

teacher and the twelve pupils sit around a large circular table. The teacher is a man in his forties, a graduate of one of the Ivy League colleges, a major in French, and obviously adept at speaking French though his accent is not native. He himself began studying French in another independent school at the age of fourteen, became interested in it, and showed unusual aptitude. Immediately after completing his military service, he decided to become a teacher. He has had no formal preparation for teaching, but his sixteen years of contact with many teachers, a deep-seated love of teaching, a broad knowledge of and taste for the French language and literature, and four years spent living in France and traveling in other parts of Europe have combined to make him a skillful and dedicated teacher.

Today he is discussing with his class Jean Giono's novel *Le chant du monde,* published in 1934. The teacher takes the first few minutes to summarize in French the discussion that has taken place in the preceding classes, to clarify some points that have been left in doubt, and to set the stage for today's discussion. Before starting, however, he gives the boys a chance to ask in French about difficulties they may have had in vocabulary, construction, or meaning. Three or four boys ask about specific points. The teacher lets other boys answer if they can do so quickly. Otherwise he answers himself. The teacher then selects two boys to write in French on the board summaries of the day's reading. The boys work without notes but have obviously prepared to do this if called on. As we watch, we note with what accuracy they write. While the two work at the board, the teacher asks the class to summarize orally the reading of the day. He interrupts frequently with questions intended to probe more deeply the boys' understanding. Once this is finished, the teacher concentrates the discussion on one aspect of Giono's art, considering today the role of nature in Giono's novel, the pervasiveness, the vividness, and particularly the personification of nature. The boys enter eagerly into the discussion, talk easily, and appear intensely interested. The teacher tells us afterward that he had prepared for this book by having the French Club show two films based on Giono's works, namely, *La femme du boulanger* and *Regain,* thus giving the class a vivid visual impression of Giono's country and the personalities of his countrymen. About five minutes before the

bell, the teacher ends the discussion in order to criticize and correct the two compositions on the board, with the participation of the other boys. He then assigns the next chapter for reading and dismisses the class.

In our conference with the teacher we learn that the course started with a reading of *Madame Bovary* in an unabridged edition. After this warming-up period the class turned to *La chanson de Roland*. From this point on the course became a survey of French literature. One of the standard anthologies was used but frequently assignments of whole works would be made. The readings included —and this is an authentic list—*Aucassin et Nicolette;* a *fabliau;* excerpts from *Le roman de Renart; La farce de Maître Pathelin;* selected poems from Charles d'Orléans and Villon; an episode from Rabelais; an essay from Montaigne; selected poems from Ronsard and Du Bellay; excerpts from Malherbe, Boileau, La Fontaine, Descartes, Pascal, Bossuet, La Rochefoucauld, La Bruyère, and Madame de Sévigné; Corneille's *Le Cid;* Molière's *Le bourgeois gentilhomme, Les femmes savantes,* and *Le malade imaginaire;* Racine's *Andromaque;* selections from Montesquieu's *Les lettres persanes;* Voltaire's *Candide;* Diderot's *Supplément au voyage de Bougainville;* selections from Rousseau's *Confessions* and *Discours;* Beaumarchais' *Le barbier de Seville* and *Le mariage de Figaro;* selections from Lamartine, Hugo, Vigny, and Musset; poems of Leconte de Lisle, Banville, Hérédia, Baudelaire, Verlaine, Rimbaud, Mallarmé, and Valéry; and Gide's *Le retour de l'enfant prodigue.* Unlike many a college survey course, this one did not stop at the end of the eighteenth century or even at the end of the nineteenth century but carried right into the middle of the twentieth, ending with Camus' *La chute,* published in 1956.

All of these twelve students will take the College Entrance Examination Board Advanced Placement Test in French, and it may be predicted on the basis of past records that approximately three of them will receive a grade of high honors, four a grade of honors, four a grade of creditable, and one a grade of pass. Most, and perhaps all, will receive credit for the first college course in literature. At least seven of the twelve will be eligible to take junior or senior courses in French during their freshman year in college.

Not many schools in the past have offered a six-year course of language study, but such a program is sure to become increasingly common. The Connecticut State Department of Education Curriculum Bulletin Series No. V., *Foreign Languages, Grades 7–12* (Hartford, Connecticut, 1958), describes various ways in which such a sequence can be planned, and the bulletin issued in 1959 by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, entitled *Modern Foreign Languages in the Comprehensive Secondary School,* also encourages school administrators to plan such a course of study.

The Six-Year Sequence of Foreign Language Study, Grades Seven to Twelve

We would do well at this point, in order to see the whole of the teacher's task, to sketch the main features of a course of study beginning in grade seven and continuing through grade twelve. The first stage is largely audiolingual because it emphasizes the training of the ear and the tongue, without the use of writing or print. Instead of discussion of grammar theory there is varied drill to help the pupil master the sound system and the structure of the language.

Stage two, in grade eight, continues to provide practice in hearing and speaking and continued exposure to culturally authentic materials. Here, however, reading and writing are commenced, both at the same time, provided they have not been begun in grade seven. The first objective is to learn to read and write the patterns that have already been learned by ear. Initially much of the reading is done aloud and should sound like natural talk and not a form of intoning. The spelling system is systematically analyzed and thoroughly learned by abundant writing exercises such as copying, written pattern practice, and dictation. In the second half of the year pupils should be able to read simple texts slightly beyond the limit of the vocabulary and syntax that have so far been learned. Likewise, once the spelling system is mastered, it will be possible to extend writing exercises to include dictation of somewhat more complex passages, the rewriting of passages with a change of person, time, and number. Controlled compositions, that is, compositions in which the pupil is told what to say though not how to say it, and

brief original compositions by the student within the limits of the vocabulary and syntax that he has learned are also encouraged.

The third stage, in grade nine, continues and expands the earlier instruction in language and culture. To these objectives are added a brief summary of the grammatical structure of the language. By this time the pupil acquires a knowledge of basic grammatical terms. As he becomes increasingly familiar with structure and expands his vocabulary, his ear is trained progressively by the use of a variety of native speakers, by the inclusion of more rapid speech, dialogues, group conversation, telephone and radio discourse. To make the pupils more conscious of the way of life of other peoples, the teacher supplements culturally significant reading materials by pictures, filmstrips, films, recordings, and personal talks by nationals from the country concerned.

After the pupil has learned to read easily material he has first learned to understand and say and is ready to extend his reading horizons, the time has come for making use of edited or bilingual texts. At this point the chief obstacle to understanding a written text is lexical rather than structural. When he comes to a word or idiom with which he is unfamiliar, he should be able quickly to refer to the margin or the bottom of the page for the meaning. And a little later he should be taught how to use a bilingual text. The bilingual text, in which the original text is printed on the left and the English translation on the right, is as yet little used but may soon become an indispensable tool for learning to read, once the initial stage has been passed. The pupil must be trained to consult the English *only after* he has made a vigorous effort to understand the original text. The considerable amount of time saved by this procedure should enable the pupil to read much more and thus more quickly reach the point of enjoying his reading.

In the ninth grade the pupil's skill in writing should also increase considerably. In addition to dictations and controlled compositions, the pupil at this point writes summaries of his reading and continues to do original compositions on subjects within his linguistic grasp.

In grades ten, eleven, and twelve there is continued practice in hearing and understanding various types of speech, practice in speaking on more mature and complex subjects, reading, writing,

culture, and literature. In these grades ear training might well include rapid, even familiar, speech, low-fidelity recordings, and broadcasts that have been partly jammed. Grammar at this point gives way to a careful analysis of the style of various worthwhile authors. The reading is substantial though appropriate to the age of the learners. It continues to reveal and illuminate cultural patterns and various aspects of contemporary civilization, and to provide historical perspective. For an appropriate guide to the study of literature, the *Advanced Placement Program: Course Descriptions* of the College Entrance Examination Board may be recommended.

The kind of language program we have sketched calls for highly qualified teachers, real professionals. Of course, not all teachers need to be able to teach at all levels. On the lower level they must be able to coordinate their teaching with that of the elementary school. They must in fact be ready to fit into the whole elementary-school-to-college language program. In the future an increasing number of language programs are likely to begin long before the seventh grade. Already many school systems are experimenting with such programs, all the way from kindergarten to grade six, with satisfying results where conditions are favorable. Assuming favorable conditions, a program which begins in the fifth grade could in grades five and six accomplish approximately what is accomplished in the seventh grade in our hypothetical program, but better. Pupils who have had such a program in grades five and six might then very well move directly into the eighth-grade language program. Pupils who have started their foreign-language instruction in grade three and continued it for four years might be expected to achieve, quantitatively, the equivalent of grades seven and eight. In the quality of their understanding and speaking they should be expected to do considerably better. They might therefore move straight into the grade-nine level of the language sequence. Children who have begun their language learning in kindergarten or grade one and continued through grade six would have acquired an even better grounding in understanding and speaking, but they would not have achieved significantly more in reading and writing than those beginning in grade three. Therefore they should normally not move into a language class higher than grade nine.

This kind of program, especially one beginning in kindergarten or grade one, would, if we had properly qualified teachers, supported by their school administrators and the community, help compete successfully with our European rivals, who for so long have had an advantage over us. Completely authentic mastery of the structure and sound system of a foreign language is normally acquired by a child only before age ten, provided the circumstances are highly favorable. Gaining familiarity with another way of life, especially if it must be done vicariously, requires a long exposure to the unfamiliar culture and the enlightened guidance of highly qualified teachers. And even the basic reading in history, civilization, and literature requires the six-year sequence we have described, as a minimum. Such a program would enable a student to do in college mature work in a second language as well as in English.

Qualifications of the Secondary-School Teacher of Modern Foreign Languages

At this point we are faced with a dilemma. Teachers qualified to teach this kind of program should ideally have been educated in the same way themselves. But we know that most of today's teachers started their language learning at the age of fourteen or fifteen and were raised in the grammar-vocabulary-translation tradition. We know also that their training has been inadequate since liberal arts colleges have been negligent of their teacher-training function, teachers' colleges have neglected academic competence, and neither has collaborated closely with the other. We find no comfort in the certification procedures of state departments of education. A recent survey of certification practices conducted by the Modern Language Association of America reveals that not a single state *requires* of teachers eligible for certification even the basic ability to understand and speak a second language. The Russian teacher we watched has a certificate, the French teacher does not, and yet both are equally competent. This observation and many others lead us to conclude that there is no necessary relationship between certification and qualification.

On questioning the Russian teacher concerning her preparation,

we found her critical of her courses both in education and in foreign languages. We have seen that her experience in the summer language institute opened her eyes and made her dissatisfied with the traditional type of work in foreign languages. Some of her courses in education were valuable, she felt, but others contained too many trivia and had no direct bearing on the teaching problem. They therefore tended to disenchant her. The French teacher we visited said that he enjoyed his courses in French literature, acquired from them a taste for reading and a critical sense, but regretted that he had had no apprenticeship in teaching until he took his first job.

The testimony of these teachers and of many others suggests that the teacher-preparation programs in many of our institutions, whether professionally or academically oriented, are inadequate for our present needs. State departments of education do little to remedy this situation. Instead of stating requirements in terms of proficiency, they are content with paper requirements, and even these are minimally stated in terms of twenty-four or eighteen or even twelve semester hours in the language concerned. There seems little hope for improvement without a completely new approach. A key to a more successful system of teacher preparation is certification based on demonstrated proficiency and readiness to teach, no matter how these qualifications may have been acquired.

Fortunately the beginning of such a program has been made in the field of languages. In 1955 the Steering Committee of the Foreign Language Program of the Modern Language Association (MLA) prepared a definition of the subject-matter competence of secondary-school teachers of modern foreign languages. This statement, which has been published in many places, was endorsed by eighteen national or regional language organizations and may therefore be taken to represent the present consensus of the language-teaching profession. Competencies were defined on three levels, minimal, good, and superior. The Committee expressed regret that the present state of the profession made it necessary to publish minimal competencies.

It is one thing to define teacher qualifications; it is another to evaluate them. The MLA, under an NDEA grant, has developed some very effective tests to measure as objectively as possible these

various competencies. As an initial step in their standardization, preliminary forms A and B of these tests were used at the beginning and the end of the summer language institutes in 1960. During the school year 1960–1961 they were revised on the basis of careful item analysis conducted by the Educational Testing Service and were made available to teacher-preparing institutions and school administrators.

The Training of the Secondary-School Teacher of Modern Foreign Languages

We have considered how the qualified language teacher may be expected to perform in the classroom. This versatile performance requires that the teacher possess, in addition to the essential qualities of character, personality, and taste, certain knowledge and skills, which have been defined. These expected competencies appear formidable to most of our present teachers, who have had neither the advantage of learning a second language in its cultural context nor that of an early start and a long sequence of effective language learning in school and college. For such teachers in service who desire to improve we need an effective remedial program.

Such a remedial program has been provided by the NDEA, which subsidized twelve institutes in the summer of 1959, thirty-seven in the summer of 1960, fifty-five in 1961, and eighty in 1962, in addition to several year-long institutes. These institutes have amply fulfilled their purpose of explaining to the profession the new theories and of demonstrating the modern practices.

The main purpose of the present chapter, however, is to describe the kind of program suitable for a candidate who wishes to prepare for teaching a modern foreign language in the secondary school. As we list the desirable components of such a program, we must not forget the trainee's possible early exposure to another language and culture (enculturation), and his twelve to sixteen years of observation of teachers and schools.

Let us now consider the course of a prospective language teacher who enrolls in a teacher-training program at some moment between his freshman year in college and his first year in graduate school.

Before such a candidate is accepted, the director and staff of the program should satisfy themselves that he has the necessary personal qualities, that he has a compelling desire to teach and a deep interest in the language and culture that he intends to teach, and that his basic mastery of this language is such that he can be expected by the end of the training course to qualify as at least "good" in all seven categories of the MLA qualifications.

Having been judged worthy of admission, the candidate should at the outset be assisted in appraising his strengths and weaknesses. This initial diagnosis will normally consist of a series of personal interviews and the taking of the MLA Foreign Language Proficiency Tests for Teachers and Advanced Students. Such interviews would reveal whether the candidate has had the advantage of childhood contact with another language and culture, when he first conceived the desire to teach, how much his formal education may have contributed to his vocational purpose, how conscious and critical he has been in observing his teachers and schools, how widely he has read on educational and related subjects, and whether he has any special interests or talents relevant to a teaching career. All of these factors make a difference and should be taken into account as the staff helps him plan his course.

The Proficiency Tests will help the staff to determine to what extent the candidate already has the qualifications defined by the MLA. The candidate receives credit for the knowledge and skills he possesses, and the director and staff prescribe a program to enable him to overcome his deficiencies. Such a program consists of courses, individual work, or a combination of the two. Thanks to the advent of the tape recorder, whole courses can be put on tape, and the independent type of student may prefer to work his way through such a course at his own speed, merely raising a question now and then in a seminar or a professor's office. Lists of readings and of other kinds of materials—recordings, films, filmstrips, slides, pictures—should be available. In fact everything possible should be done to free any student with the slightest spark of independence from the goosestep of our traditional practices. As soon as he feels ready, the student should be allowed to demonstrate his readiness by teaching in the classroom and by taking an alternate form of the

MLA tests plus any other tests the director and staff may prescribe. Having given satisfactory evidence of his proficiency, he should be recommended by the institution to the state department of education and be granted a license to teach.

Providing each candidate with an opportunity to acquire the knowledge and skills outlined in the MLA statement of qualifications and in a form to suit his individual needs requires a program of great flexibility.

To be able to understand and speak another language with a near-native proficiency, a teacher must normally have been exposed to the foreign language before the age of ten. A teacher who has had such an advantage can usually model the language adequately for his pupils. We do not mean to imply, of course, that access to our language classrooms should be limited to native speakers of other languages. This *is* an ideal to be strived for, but there are many competent and inspiring teachers of modern foreign languages—like the French teacher we watched in the independent boys' school—whose teaching is excellent and whose services are needed. But a teacher should be able to recognize when his speech is not authentic and should be ready to supply authentic models on tape and discs. There is no room for compromise here. German is what the native speaker of German talks, not what a foreign imitator has learned belatedly and artificially in the classroom. Of those who have begun their language learning in high school and continued through college, only the most gifted approximate native mastery. A deficiency in understanding and speaking may be remediable, but it requires long hours of practice in listening to and imitating native speakers. A course in advanced oral composition should be available, but much practice in hearing and speaking can be provided in the language laboratory.

The literate skills (reading and writing) are the ones which have been traditionally stressed. Our teacher candidate may therefore not need much special training in reading, but he will probably need instruction and demonstration in how to teach reading. He will learn that without sufficient oral preparation silent reading is unsatisfactory. He will learn the technique of listening to a recorded reading while following a text with his eyes. He will examine

studies that have been made of the "density" of reading texts (number of new words per page) and will learn how to adjust the density to pupils' progress. He will learn how to train pupils in the proper use of bilingual texts. And he may have the opportunity to explore the use of the tachistoscope in speeding up silent reading.

Teacher candidates will certainly need practice in writing. Writing is one thing that cannot be learned from tape; it requires a native teacher who is skillful in criticizing written exercises of all kinds. In addition to improving his own writing skill, the teacher candidate will need to learn how to teach writing. The teaching of writing has in the past been quite unsatisfactory in the secondary school, for two principal reasons. One is the fact that secondary-school teachers have been overwhelmed with classes both too numerous and too large and so have not been able to check carefully on assigned written work. The second reason is that we have not used properly the various forms of written exercises available to us. An adequate teacher-training program should provide a candidate with a course in advanced composition, if needed, and with instruction in the various techniques of teaching writing.

On the subject of grammar our teacher candidate will, if he has had the traditional instruction provided by teachers of English, Latin, and modern foreign languages, need to learn the newer concepts of linguistic science and the application of these concepts to the teaching of a second language. He must realize clearly that instead of studying grammar first and then language, as has so often been done in the past, pupils should first learn appropriate usage by direct imitation of authentic models. Only after having learned to use the basic structures of a language is one ready to learn how to analyze and describe the grammar of a foreign language. The procedure is similar to that used in learning one's mother tongue. By the age of five and a half the average child understands and speaks his mother tongue in perfect conformity to the cultural group within which he lives. In the primary grades of school he normally learns the basic elements of reading and writing and in the intermediate grades he learns, we hope, modern grammatical terms and concepts. His study of the structure of a foreign language should follow the same course and should provide him with the labels

necessary to talk about language structure with an understanding of its classes, forms, and relations. This fundamental part of the teacher-training program can be provided in courses called "Introduction to Linguistics" and "The Application of Linguistics to Language Teaching." Mature students should naturally not be required to take these courses if they prefer to do the readings privately and take a rigorous examination on the subject.

Among the competencies of a modern foreign-language teacher the most controversial is knowledge of culture. The word itself causes confusion. For our purposes it will be sufficient to distinguish two general meanings, one which has long been traditional, especially with humanists, and the other representing the newer point of view of social scientists. According to the latter, culture involves the regularly patterned way of life characteristic of a society, or people living, feeling, thinking, evaluating, acting together. According to the former, culture involves the things that people have produced, the things which we would be proud to have produced if we had been in their place, the outstanding achievements of a people, particularly in the arts. In the past, language teachers have been primarily concerned with the second of these definitions, and among the arts mainly with literature. The MLA qualifications statement suggests that in our day this exclusive concern with literature is no longer adequate. This is not to say that literature is not important. Literature is in fact the only art form directly related to language. It would be tragic if literary study did not continue to attract ever increasing numbers of foreign-language teachers. What is needed, however, is a great broadening of interests in order to make room for some language teachers who will concern themselves with other aspects of culture, whether it be history, geography, economics, politics, or social institutions. Foreign-language teachers have hitherto been either totally oblivious of culture in the social-science sense or have had a very superficial view of it.

Future modern language teachers therefore need first of all a clear idea of the culture concept. They will then gradually have to learn how to apply this concept, just as they are learning to apply the concepts of linguistic science, to their language teaching. The kind of understanding that is involved may be acquired in various

ways. One of the best is by living among the people whose language one teaches, and particularly during one's early years. A person with such an experience comes closest to identifying himself with another culture. But feeling oneself to be part of another culture is not sufficient. One should become conscious of it, be able to talk about it, if one is to be successful in making younger learners in turn aware of it. We may say in summary then that the ideal teacher should be able to represent another culture and should be able to make his pupils sensitive to another way of life. This requires great delicacy and intelligence if one is to avoid superficiality.

Language reflects culture, both through the words which arbitrarily represent meaning and through the structures which combine words. The language learner can early be made aware how radically these differ from English and be led to understand that other nationals organize their experience in completely different ways, as revealed by their language. Fortunately the audio-visual materials which are coming into wider use can assist greatly in bringing other peoples right into our classrooms, where we can both see and hear them in characteristic activities. The number of films, filmstrips, and tape recordings of good quality that are now available is limited, but the few that we have suffice to show that young learners are stimulated by seeing the immediate connection between the language they are studying and the life of the people who speak this language. In the future, materials selected for our language teaching must meet as rigorous a test of cultural authenticity as of linguistic authenticity. Furthermore they must at every stage in the modern language course be appropriate to the age and experience of the learner. It is in the field of culture that the future language teacher finds his greatest challenge and his greatest opportunity. To acquire competence in this field our teacher candidate should have the choice of taking courses on the "Introduction to the Social Sciences" and "The Application of the Social Sciences to Language Teaching" or of reading the substance of such courses on his own in preparation for an examination.

Professional preparation to teach a language should remain, as it now generally does, in the hands of language specialists, although a complete program for learning to teach requires the collaboration of professional educators. Readiness to teach a modern foreign

language presupposes an understanding of the nature of language, best interpreted by linguistic scientists; of the process by which a foreign language is learned, which psychologists are only just beginning to investigate; of the relation between language and culture, which cultural anthropologists, sociologists, and social psychologists can help us understand better; of the best available methods and materials for teaching in a modern manner; and of the tests available for evaluating various aspects of language learning in accordance with the objectives which have been established. Ideally, the desire and ability to conduct research and experimentation in the field of language learning and teaching should also be part of the language teacher's equipment. To help the prospective teacher with his professional preparation, a training program should offer a course on "The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages," but again let us emphasize that the candidate who chooses to read and study by himself rather than take the course should be encouraged to do so.

The program we have described constitutes only a part, though a major part, of the training of the teacher of modern foreign languages. Another major part of his training falls in the area of what is commonly called professional education. It includes such elements as an understanding of human growth and learning, of the place of the school in our society, of current educational theories and practices, of evaluation and experimental design, and of an apprenticeship in teaching, in which professional and academic educators should share supervision. Unfortunately there are still lacking a satisfactory working definition of qualifications in the field of professional preparation and tests to measure as objectively as possible such qualifications. This lack is one of the chief obstacles to rapid progress in the field of teacher education. Let us hope that our colleagues in professional education will undertake without delay to fill this gap in our educational system.

Summary and Conclusion

Let us consider some of the implications of the principles and practices which we have outlined. In the preceding pages we have considered the training program to be only the culmination of the

teacher's early language-learning experience and his exposure to a culture other than his own. Indeed we may safely affirm that a college or graduate-school program for the training of a language teacher has little chance of producing highly qualified teachers if entering students are not already equipped with at least the basic language skills of understanding, speaking, reading, and writing. The acquisition of these skills presupposes a long sequence of effective language learning, at the very least a six-year program beginning in grade seven and continuing through grade twelve. There are, to be sure, known cases of qualified teachers who did not begin their language study until senior high school or even college, but they are exceptional in their interest and aptitude. Under normal circumstances not even a six-year sequence is sufficient to guarantee a near-native command of a second language, for we have noted that the average person does not learn to speak a second language without accent and without constraint unless he is exposed to this language in its cultural context before the age of ten.

A respect for these basic principles concerning the nature of language and the process of language learning suggests the need that we reconsider the whole structure of teacher education. If we agree that the hard core of a language teacher's qualifications is mastery of language and cultural awareness, we are bound to accept certain implications. For one thing, we should recruit far more of our teacher candidates from among those of our citizens who have learned a second language in its cultural context. This in turn requires the preservation and constant replenishment of our linguistic and cultural resources. It should require only a moment's thought to realize that a United States citizen who is equipped to use two languages skillfully is more valuable to himself and to his country than one who is not. And yet, at the same time that our Congress appropriates millions of dollars to promote more and better language learning, our schools systematically suppress the knowledge of languages other than English in children who come to school so equipped. It would be easy to cultivate other languages if our citizens valued these languages and wanted to preserve them.

The technical problems are not difficult. Many children in bilingual communities still enter school able to understand and speak

a language other than English. At this point they are ready to learn the elements of reading and writing that language, which now we withhold from them until grade nine or ten, by which time they have lost their desire. Let us by all means provide this opportunity to read, at the psychologically proper moment. While learning to read and write in their mother tongue, these children would learn everything else in English along with the English-speaking children, except reading and writing in English, which could be delayed slightly until they were ready. One of our educational inconsistencies is that we are careful not to plunge our English-speaking children into reading until we are sure they are "ready" even though they have lived in an English-speaking environment for six years. With non-English-speaking children we show no such scruples as we plunge them into the reading of English, a *foreign* language. In schools where some of the children speak English as a mother tongue and also another language there is an unusual opportunity for effective language learning. While the children who speak another language are learning to read and write their mother tongue and learning to understand and speak English, the English-speaking children have the opportunity to learn to understand and speak the second language of the community. As the children play together, they can teach each other a second language under something approaching ideal circumstances.

Not only do we fail to exploit our national supply of teachers of other languages; we have also so far failed to develop on a large scale the exchange of teachers with other countries. Here too is a potential source of native-speaking teachers with the additional advantage that they have been well educated and can represent their culture authentically. Such exchanges would of course require on both sides a thorough orientation in the prevailing school philosophy and practices.

In discussing the training part of our teacher-education program we have emphasized the desirability of a flexible program conducted co-operatively by language educators, social scientists, and professional educators. The collaboration of social scientists is needed because the study of language—or linguistics—is a social science as well as one of the humanities. The collaboration of pro-

fessional educators is indispensable, for they are most intimately concerned with educational theory and practice. The best basis for a satisfactory collaboration is, we believe, the acceptance of the principle that a teacher's qualifications when satisfactorily demonstrated should be recognized no matter how they may have been acquired. The experience and education of teacher candidates vary widely. But concerning what they should be able to do in the language classroom we have, as far as subject-matter is concerned, reached a workable consensus. What we now urgently need is a similar working definition of what a teacher needs to know and be able to do on the professional side. This is not nearly so difficult as it seems. There are well defined fields of knowledge, such as the place of the school in our society, the principles of human growth and learning, evaluation and experimentation, and teaching apprenticeship. All of these have been the subjects of courses and textbooks. By mobilizing its best thinkers the educational profession could therefore conceivably agree on a definition of knowledge essential to the teacher. A demonstration in the classroom of readiness to teach could be carried out in the presence of the supervising teacher and principal of the school and of a language educator and a professional educator from the teacher-training institution. A teacher whose basic knowledge has been validated by examination —whether or not he has taken specific courses—and whose readiness to teach has been demonstrated satisfactorily to such a committee as we have indicated above should, we believe, be recommended forthwith by the training institution and be granted a license to teach by the state department of education.

We have sketched the principal aspects of the education of the qualified secondary-school teacher of modern foreign languages. Is his education complete as he steps into his first regular classroom? Certainly not, but if his own teachers have been successful and he has in him the stuff of a teacher, he will think of his first class as the beginning rather than the end of his education. He will want to continue reading and speculating, and he will want constantly to improve his teaching by means of research and experimentation. And finally he will want to collaborate with other professional-minded teachers in improving unremittingly the quality of American education.

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